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A Study The Changing Conceptions Of The Aims, Curricula, And Methods Of Secondary Schools In The United States

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A STUDY OF THE CHANGING CONCEPTIONS OF THE AIMS, CURRICULA, AND METHODS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES

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A STUDY OF THE CHANGING CONCEPTIONS OF THE AIMS, CURRICULA, AND METHODS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES

By

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TO

My Children,

Madelyn and Louis,
whose lives are a
constant inspiration
to me.

BIOGRAPHY

The writer, Louis Connie Davis, the only child of Handson and Ellen Davis, was born in Trinity County, Texas, August 6, 1912. His childhood days were spent at his parents' home. He did his elementary work in Trinity High School, and graduated from the High School in 1930. In September, 1931, he entered Phillis Wheatley High School, Houston, Texas, and finished senior High School in 1933. He entered Prairie View College in the Fall of 1933, and completed his undergraduate work in 1937.

The writer taught in schools of Trinity County, Trinity, Texas, 1939; Medina County, Hondo, Texas, as Supervisor of Cadet schools from 1943 to 1945. Then he taught in Burleson County, Somerville, Texas, from the Fall of 1945, to the present time.

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It is often difficult to find words to express one's feelings and appreciation for constant guidance and generous help rendered by individuals who enable one to accomplish something worth while. To Miss C. Y. Prunty, Professor of Education of Prairie View College, the only way I know how to express my gratitude is to say, "Thank you for your loyalty, kindness and cooperation for making possible the completion of this research."

To Mrs. M. F. Bradley, Librarian of W. R. Banks Library, the writer is deeply indebted for helpful assistance in obtaining information for this study.

— L. C. D.

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I

A STUDY OF THE CHANGING CONCEPTIONS OF THE AIMS, CURRICULA, AND METHODS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES

Education at any given time or place is, in large measure, the product of the civilization of which it is a part; however, much it may be influenced by custom and tradition, for it is always sensitive to contemporary social forces. It is not too much to say that social forces beating in on the school from without in the long run determine the essential tenets of its philosophy, the degree and kind of educational opportunities that will be afforded the various social classes, the content and organization of the curriculum, the preparation and status of teachers, the sources of financial support, the agencies of administration, and the form of structural organization which the educational system takes.[1] For these reasons, social forces within this nation have made necessary the change in the curriculum of the secondary school for a period extending over two centuries or more.

Purpose of the Study. - It is believed that the whole of our educational scheme has not always been exactly what it is today, but rather our concepts, aims, curricula, and methods have come about due to the changes in the economic, and social structure of American society. To show that our American educational scheme has been subjected to the swaying influences of societal evolution is the purpose of this study.

In the development of this paper the following questions were raised: first, to what extent did the primary aims of our past educa-

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[1] Newton Edwards and Harman G. Richey, The School in the American Social Order, p. xi.

tion meet the demands of the age in which they served?

Mulhern says, the past education is defective from these main points of view, namely, (1) Inflexible curricular; (2) Inadequate facilities and teachers' inefficiency; and (3) Lack of vocational guidance.[1] An examination of these defects will be made, briefly, to explain the nature of them.

The schools of the past were based on the principles that the child was for the school and not the school for the child. The school was similar to a mill with its gauges and specifications set up and every timber that passed through the mill would have physical identity with respect to its shape, size and purpose. "Likewise, the child would pass through this old system of machinery coming out only to fit in one particular scheme of social activity." Unfortunately, the curricula of the past made no provisions for a diversity of vocational interests. Therefore, from the period of the Latin-Grammar School to the time of schools of the nineteenth century, there was not provided the equipment and facilities sufficient for the teaching of vocations. Whether this was due to the lack of funds for the support of particular divisions of the school unit or whether it was the lack of knowledge of subject matter pertaining to such courses is a big wonder. The writer had rather suggest the latter, as related to the inefficiency of teachers along these lines. This would suggest that the area of vocational guidance should offer some measure of relief to vocational and professional problems with which individuals are faced.

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[1] Jones Mulhern, A History of Education, p. 270.

In almost every civilization there is to be found some degree of complexity which involves the indirect wants, needs and desires of that civilization. So the longer the period over which guidance is extended to reach more of the population, the less the chances of many maladjustments occurring within the civilization. Evidence seems to indicate that with a rising percentage of vocational guidance, there is a corresponding decrease in the percentage of maladjustments. Such a condition was just the opposite in the old school, for there was a rising percentage of maladjustments and a corresponding decrease in vocational guidance. The need for vocational guidance grows out of the large amount of maladjustments in respect to the adaptation of people to their work. It is believed that a man well-trained to fit into a given type of society does not necessarily mean that man will fit a satisfactory nook in just any vocation.

It should be noted that the older schools made no provision for guidance that followed the child in his line of endeavor which made for the necessary adjustment. After all, vocational guidance may be nothing more than the adjustment between men and their jobs. Since the older schools made no provisions for the child's adjustment to his life-task, the need becomes apparent for new aims of education.

The second question raised, which seems to be pertinent to this study is: to what extent are the primary aims of our present education meeting the demands of this age?

The curriculum of the modern school provides for individual preference as to vocation. The writer is simply saying that the curricu-

lum is arranged so as to allow the student to choose his vocation and be able to have directed institutions along these lines. The curriculum is flexible so as to make the school for the child and not the child for the school. Modern civilization is demanding a more simplified method or way of learning. Since society has become so complex, the demands are more keenly felt for a more practical method, since the dialogue method of learning does not give active practice in any of life's situations. Stevens asserted that the project method of teaching is a "problematic act carried to completion in its natural setting."[1] He points out further, that:

1. It implies an act carried to completion or taking up of information;
2. It develops the problematic situation, demanding reasoning rather than merely memorizing of information;
3. It implies, by emphasizing the problem over the aspect, the priority of the problem over the statement of principles; and
4. It makes provisions for the natural setting. The situation undertaken in school from what they would be were they to come up in the life outside the school.

Scope. - The writer will go back into the past system of education as far as the Latin-Grammar schools and classify the schools upon the basis of their function. A consideration is given to current trends in our educational situation which seem necessary in the light of contemporary social phenomena.

Method of Procedure. - The historical approach was used to compile these data. The data were secured from books, journals, and magazines which were available in the W. R. Banks Library, Prairie View Agricultural and Mechanical College, Prairie View, Texas; and from the personal library of the writer.

[1] J. A. Stevens, The Project In Science Teaching, pp. 57-59.

Definition. - An approach to a definition of "education" may be made through a discussion of the primary aim of education. John Dewey, an American educator of the first rank, who states that "Education is Life."[1] It is believed that Dewey felt that the school should be a place where children are working rather than listening, learning life by living life, and becoming acquainted with social institutions in order that the children may see life through simplified experiences.

Integration and aggregation go hand and hand; therefore, the tendency is ever growing to integrate life experiences for the aggregation of children who are living and whom one hopes will continue to live, constructively.

Unless civilization goes to pieces, we face an unavoidable process of integration. Therefore, as the home, the church, the community, and the State are sufficient for society, so education must be organized in its aims so as to fit one for integration into the societal scheme in which one lives.

Society is the group-whole. The home, the church, the community, and the State are the component parts; and unless education aims to fit one for his integration into each component part, the "whole" will be affected. It is simply being said that where there is life, there is some form of community activity; hence it is wise to view some of these relationships in terms of: (1) the family; (2) the church; (3) the community; (4) the State; and (5) the nation. Upon the basis of a more general grouping these may fall into four major topics, namely: (1) associate community; (2) federated community; (3) the State; and

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[1] John Dewey, Democracy and Education, Vol. 1, pp. 1-11.

(4) the nation.

In all of these organizations there are maladjustments which can only be corrected by knowing a better way, a more scientific way of achieving integration. Education makes for these adjustments in our churches, State, and communities, since it is accepted that it is one of the superior media for aiding in adjustment to an environment.

It is believed that education is the knowledge that prepares one for complete living, and that there are certain activities that one should keep in mind, namely: (1) activities related to preserving health; (2) vocational activities related to earning a living; and (3) social and political activities related to citizenship. Some degree of education forms for any individual the basis of the right action and right thinking.

Education aims to develop a higher type of citizenry by setting up certain restrictions and propelling character traits as will make for a greater adaptability to a diversity of situations. "Knowing the right will be followed by doing the right."[1]

It has been noted that education is different in different places; however, all education seems to be designed to prohibit one from doing those things that are anti-social, through motivating and developing an urge to aspire to higher ideals, morally, socially, intellectually, and religiously.

The secondary school is charged with the primary responsibility of providing and maintaining optimal physical and mental health of all its students. This means that adequate medical examinations and

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[1] Harl R. Douglass, American Public Education, Chapter 15.

remedial treatment should be provided for all students as the starting point, but this is not enough. Health education should be made a regular part of the school program. Before this can be done effectively, the school needs to clarify its conception of the meaning of health.

Clearly, it must be embracing of both the physical and mental aspects which are so closely interrelated that one cannot be considered without giving attention to the other.

According to Lammel, "Health programs should help each student to be physically fit to achieve success, tohave a growing sense of security, to develop and clarify his social outlook. The health should be such as to encourage creative expression, the ability to think, social sensitivity, and cooperativeness." This may be elaborated further by stating that in a health program so conceived as expressed in the above, physical, emotional, and intellectual aspects of the developing personality cannot be dealt with separately. Physical well-being is promoted through medical care, diet, and opportunities for normal functioning and development of the body. Intellectual and emotional well-being are promoted through opportunities to live and work in an environment which is free as possible from the conditions producing fears, anxieties, conflicts, and emotional stresses, and in which working beliefs concerning the meaning of democratic living may be developed. The effective functioning of such a comprehensive idea of healthful living is possible only when every area of school life makes its contributions.[1]

The health program then, should permeate the total life of the

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[1] Rose Lammel, Improving the Health Program of the Ohio State University School, p. 144.

school and it should get its direction from the ideals and values of democratic living. This being true, it should be recognized that such a program will not be confined to the four walls of the school, but will extend to a concern for promoting a social environment in the immediate and wider community that will be conducive to zestful living by all citizens. Although health is important, so is the matter of vocations.

There is probably no area of high school education in which more confusion exists than in the meaning of guidance and its application to the curriculum, and this confusion is more than academic, for it results in confused practices in the high school.

This confusion is more readily understood if guidance is considered in its historical perspective. The educational use of the term began in 1908, in connection with vocational placement and vocational choices and for sometime was applied only to the organized efforts of a school to find suitable jobs for high school students in terms of their desires, vocational aptitudes, and training. So firmly did this limited concept become entrenched that even at the present time many people think of guidance primarily in terms of helping young people to find their places in the vocational world. As the high school population increased and the curricula offerings expanded, and need arose for educational guidance, the concept was extended to include the help given to the student in choosing the curriculum best fitted to his present and future needs. The increased complexity of the culture, the increased number of broken homes due to mounting divorce rates, increased sensitivity to problems of mental hygiene and problems of health all contributed to further the expansion of the meaning of the

term, so that present-day writers classify guidance activities in terms of the many facets of the help given to young people in solving their problems which may be classified as vocational, moral, social, and educational. In most cases these new functions were taken over by the school as supplementary activities, without changing to any great extent the formal curriculum of such courses as "Exceptional Civics", "Economic Civics" or "guidance". These courses are usually offered early in the junior high school period and are designed to orient the student primarily to the world of vocations, and secondarily to the educational opportunities offered by the school. In the larger schools, these added functions were performed by new personnel known as counselors, deans of boys, deans of girls, or coordinators. In the smaller schools, they were assigned regular classroom teachers. In both cases, however, the classroom and guidance functions were regarded as quite separate and distinct. Many modern writers still hold to this distinction, as we shall see when the present meaning of the term guidance is defined.

Hamrin says, "Guidance in the secondary school refers to that aspect of the educational program which is concerned especially with helping the pupil to become adjusted to his present situation and to plan his future in line with his interests, abilities, and social needs."[1]

This is but another way of stating the purpose of education in the modern school, and certainly does not segregate guidance from other educative functions. The words, "concerned especially", are

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[1] Shirley A. Hamrin, Guidance in the Secondary School, pp. 1-2.

designed to assign guidance a special place, but should not all education be concerned especially with the purpose of guidance as stated?

Jones offers the following definition: "Guidance consists of (a) teaching a pupil to conceive objectives that are meaningful and worthy for him, socially desirable, and attainable in the light of his background, ability, and development, and of (b) helping him to achieve these objectives."[1]

Again, it should be noted that one might substitute the word, "education", for guidance in the above definition without in anyway changing its meaning. Is guidance, then, synonymous with education? If so, why use the term at all?

The definitions stated above are further re-enforced and extended by the definition of guidance offered in "The Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards."

Guidance, as applied to the secondary school, should be thought of as an organized service designed to give systematic aid to pupils in making adjustments to various types of problems which they must meet - educational, vocational, health, moral, social, civic, and personal. It should endeavor to help the pupil to know himself as an individual and as a member of society; to enable him to correct certain traits of his short comings.

The foregoing paragraphs seem to imply that education is achieved if the aims of complete living - embracing healthful living and vocational efficiency - are achieved.

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[1] Galon Jones, Guidance in Public Secondary Schools, p. 21.

II

OLDER CONCEPTIONS OF EDUCATION

In order to compare the older conceptions of education with its primary aims as conceived currently, there must be an analysis of each division or stage of the past scheme of education, namely: (1) The Massachusetts Laws of 1642 and 1647; (2) The Kalamazoo Case; (3) The Latin-Grammar Schools; (4) The Academy; and (5) The High School.

The Massachusetts Laws of 1642-1647. - The law of 1642 was remarkable in that, for the first time in the English speaking world, a legislative body representing the State ordered that all children should be taught to read. The laws showed clearly, not only the influence of the Reformation theory as to personal salvation and the Calvinistic conception of the connection between learning and religion, but also the influence of the English Poor-Law legislation which had developed rapidly during the half-century immediately preceeding the coming of the Puritans to America. On the foundation of the English Poor Laws of 1601, New England settlers moulded the first American law relating to education, adding to the principles already established there a distinct Calvinistic contribution to the new world life that the authorities of the civil town should see that all children were taught "to read and understand the principles of religion and the capital laws of the country." This law of the courts, if the authorities failed to do so, ordered that the practice be enforced and the courts, if providing the authorities failed in their responsibilities, were authorized to execute their proper duties in the matter.

The Law of 1642, while ordering "the chosen men" of each town

to see that education and training of children were not neglected and providing for fines on parents who failed to render accounts when required, did not establish schools, or direct the employment of schoolmasters. The provision of education, after the English fashion, was still left with the homes. After a trial of five years, the results of which were not satisfactory, the General Court enacted another law by means of which it was asserted that "the Puritan government of Massachusetts rendered probably its greatest service to the future. The court ordered that every town having fifty householders should at once appoint a teacher of reading and writing, and provide for the wages of the teacher to be determined by the town; and that every town having one hundred householders should provide a grammar school to fit youths for the University, also under a penalty of five hundred dollars for failure to do so.

This law represented a step in advance over the Law of 1642, and for this there were no English precedents. It was not until the latter part of the nineteenth century that England took such a step, so it is believed that the Calvinistic principles of education were important functions of a religious State. The state acted as the servant of the church, enacted a law and fixed a tradition which prevailed and grew in strength and effectiveness after State and church had separated company. Not only was a school system ordered established - elementary for all towns and children, and secondary for youths in the larger towns, but for the first time among English-speaking people, there was an assertion of the right of the State to require communities to establish and maintain schools, subject to penalty if they

refused to do so. It can be safely asserted, in the light of later developments, that the two laws of 1642 and 1647, represent the foundation upon which our American state, public school system has been built. Martin states that the fundamental principles which underlay this legislation were as follows:

1. The universal education of youth is essential to the well being of the State.
2. The obligation to furnish this education rests primarily upon the present.
3. The State has a right to enforce this obligation.
4. The State may fix a standard which shall determine the kind of education, and the minimum amount.
5. Public money, raised by general tax, may be used to provide such education as the State requires. The tax may be general, though the school attendance is not.

> It is important to note here, Martin adds, that the idea underlying all this legislation is neither paternalistic nor socialistic. The child to be educated, not to advance his personal interests but the State, will suffer if he is not educated. The State does not provide schools to relieve the parent, but it can hereby enforce the obligation which it imposes.[1]

To prevent a return to the former state of religious ignorance it was important that education be provided. To assure this, the colonial legislature enacted a law requiring the maintenance and support of schools by the towns. This law became the cornerstone of our American, State, school system. It is important to note that religious focus was not to be omitted in the education program.

Aims. - Later Latin Grammar schools, as they were established, were intended to prepare boys for college. It was pointed out that the aim of religious training was indirect through the study of

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[1]George H. Martin, The Evolution of Public School System, pp. 14-16.

Latin and Greek. For this reason, the writer feels that the Grammar school had grown up within some dominant religious establishment, and its religious aim has remained more or less permanent, although it is not as obvious, now, as it was formerly.

In conjunction with Latin and Greek, the language studies for both secondary schools and colleges were very essential in the education of clergymen who would exert, it was assumer, power as members of society.

In this connection, it was mentioned that five hundred and thirty-one graduated from Harvard in the first seventy years after its establishment in 1636, with about one-half of its graduates becoming ministers of the gospel. Then, it was not until near the end of the eighteenth century that Harvard regarded itself as an institution to advance general learning, such as science and general literature as well as theology.

If the Massachusetts Laws of 1642-1647, were in any ways important to our American educational system, certainly one cannot overlook the importance of the Latin-Grammar school's influence on the aims and objectives of our nation's schools.

The Latin-Grammar School. - The writer feels that the Latin-Grammar School greatly influenced the development of the secondary school. It seems significant that in the literature pertaining to Latin-Grammar schools is found mention of service to church and state, though one cannot find the latter service defined. The close relationship of church and state made easy this confusion, especially where boys were trained to read the "Word of God" accurately in Latin and Greek.

which, in the writer's belief, presumed that this was an advantage to the state. So, the obligation to establish schools and maintain them seemed to have been laid upon towns which were at the same time congregations. It was at this point that state control of education began.

The writer feels that it is difficult for the modern reader to estimate the importance of the Massachusetts Bay Colony Law of 1647 - which was copied verbatim by Connecticut in 1650 - in relation to its influence on education in New England. Therefore, in our civiliation up to this time, schools had been imposed on people by authority or bestowed on them as an act of kindness.

It is said that in Massachusetts, the people established the educational system for themselves. Edward E. Hale points out that the members of the Massachusetts Assembly gave their own money to establish a place for education. This, the writer believes, is evidence of the first, real "public schools" for two reasons: first, they were (by the Massachusetts law) established by the people and in part, supported by them; and second, they were open to all who wished to enroll and could qualify, not merely those students of a particular social status or denominational affiliation. So, in New England, the grammar school was "public" in the latter sense and was also acquired through legislation and controlled by the people.

The American Journal of Education states that it was the policy of Boston as well as all the towns which established free schools, to endow the same by lands rented on long leases, by bequests and by donations after the English manner.[1]

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[1] American Journal of Education, pp. 27-66.

One could assume from the foregoing paragraphs that all went well with the "public school" system in its earlier years; however evidence to the contrary may cause one to change his assumption.

Opposing Factors. - Grizzell,[1] states that the effect of the Massachusetts Bay Colony Law of 1647, and the period which followed (before 1700), resulted in the establishment of approximately thirty Latin-Grammar schools in Massachusetts and about seven in Connecticut. It is believed that the law was in advance of the public's sentiment which was evident in the legal indictments of various towns for non-compliance with the requirements as well as other evidence which points out an increasing number of penalties for failure to comply with the provisions of the law. This, in itself, might cause one to believe that the essential features of the law remained on the statue books until 1789, when a new and improved law was passed; but in 1824, all but seven towns were exempted from the obligation to provide grammar schools.[2] After the original legislature, there developed several reasons why the original provisions could not be carried out. In the first place, the struggle for existence against hostile conditions, poverty, and economic depression made it easy for an institution not to satisfy the most felt needs of the people. Too, following the Indian War, the people were encouraged to develop and advance the frontiers; consequently, there was a scattered population, which not only had less respect for Grammar schools, but also was less able to support them. Through all of this struggle the tradition of higher edu-

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[1] E. D. Grizzell, Origin and Development of the High School in England Before 1865, p. 7.

[2] Alexander Inglis, The Use of High School In Massachusetts, pp. 56-66.

cation was kept alive and learning was not buried in the graves of its fathers. Factors other than opposition were also present.

Characteristics. - Although the early Latin-Grammar schools may be said to have had objectives, there were several attendant characteristic weaknesses present. There were no special buildings, and there was serious and prolonged work involved in the teaching methods which may be said to have been major short-comings. No buildings for school, per se, is known to have been erected until the eighteenth century. It is believed that they (the students) sat on benches without backs. The school year varied, but certain contracts called for the school-session to continue twelve months, and others for ten months with very few holidays - in one school, only two days were granted as holiday periods during the entire school year. It is said that the methods of learning were chiefly those of memorizing all forms and rules which could have had, in the beginning, little if any meaning to the pupils, who entered the school at the age of eight or nine years. Further, one schoolmaster thought that, "it would be well to relieve the boys a little while from studying grammar, because they were becoming weary."

Martin states that the boys who studied Latin had first the Colloquies of Corderuis. They read Alsop, too, then followed with the reading of Eutropius' short history of Rome. Soon they began studying Latin by using exercise books; this was followed in turn by the study of Ceasar and Cicero. For lessons in Greek, the Greek grammar, the Testament and some of Homer were used as bases. All this preparation in Latin and Greek was supposed to fit the pupils

for the University, as the law required.[1]

The American Journal of Education refers to the fact that the Boston Public Latin School was slow to include in its curriculum the various branches of English as well as other subjects. The reform came, however, during the headmastership of Benjamin A. Gould sometime after 1814. Among the studies first added to the curriculum were: arithmetic, geometry, trigonometry, algebra, and geography. Following these, declaimation, reading, English grammar, English composition, history and Constitution of the United States and of Massachusetts were added. Although the changes in curriculum did occur, it took almost two hundred years for the curriculum reform to be effected.

Still, it should not be inferred that the Colonists learned absolutely nothing but Latin and Greek; although it was felt that beyond receiving a scanty education in the Latin-Grammar school, if the youth desired to progress further, he could do so by attending private schools which taught some of the English language.

Decline. - The high idealism of leaders in the Latin-Grammar schools did not become popular. Their idealism was more or less confined to New England, where they were numerous. From the first, they were opposed, and in many cases, schools were not established even by communities on which the law laid an obligation. It seems that during the eighteenth century there were continued several reasons why the ideals of the founding fathers of the Latin-Grammar school did not develop: the curriculum did not make a sentimental appeal to the general population. Also, as industries grew in number and importance,

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[1] G. H. Martin, The Evolution of Massachusetts Public School System, pp. 58-59.

the manufacturer, the merchant, and the tradesman got much of the prestige that had formerly been peculiar to the ruling classes and ministers, who had dominated the people as was the custom according to the European tradition. It is but natural (in the viewpoint of the writer) that these new powers in the communities should not have been over-friendly to an institution such as the school - the advantages of which they had not had and the values of which they could not easily see. Since it was a constant struggle to build up a nation, immediate and practical challenges had to come which developed into several periods of prolonged economic depressions. These crises further affected the growth of the schools.

It is said that in addition to economic struggles there were wars with the Indians, after the close of which the population pushed out in a thinning fringe to an extending frontier where Latin-Grammar schools could not be thought of. It was further asserted that even in the existing schools, there were only a few students of Latin - nine from an enrollment of eighty-five in Roxbury (1770); and five from a total enrollment of sixty in Newbury Port.

The decline of these schools was recognized by the Massachusetts Law of 1787, and one hundred and twenty towns became free from the obligation to provide for them. As late as 1824, freedom from school responsibility was still extended to all towns except seven. This may be explained by the fact that from the beginning of the Revolutionary War the Latin-Grammar school began its decline, even in New England, and at its close there was scarcely one school remaining worthy of the name, "Latin-Grammar School."

Contributions. - In spite of its short-comings, the writer has tried to show that the Latin-Grammar school in America made important contributions to society. It continued the tradition of academic education so that learning was not buried in the graves of its founding fathers. Furthermore, its continued organization kept alive in the minds of the people the necessity of education of some kind, and so facilitated the establishment of new types of schools. It continued and developed a body of subject matter so arranged or organized through experience that its power is still felt in competition with new subjects, which always encounter resistance when attempts are made to introduce them into the curriculum and remove some of the traditional subjects. The job of "schoolmastering" continued, and gradually became somewhat a vocation and, in time, a profession. Most important of all, perhaps, is the fact that with the Latin-Grammar school there began public support and control which, after a lapse, became universal in our country and continues, even now, in our secondary school.

The Kalamazoo Case. - The development of the American high school was slow up to 1840, for not more than a dozen high schools had been established in Massachusetts, and not more than an equal number in all of the other States. The Academy, the dominant school prior to the high school, had demonstrated that the cost of maintenance was an important factor in education. Therefore, opposition to an extension of taxation to include high schools was manifest as had been shown earlier toward the establishment of common schools. Furthermore (as had been the case with the common schools), state

legislation was nearly always permissive and not mandatory in its laws pertaining to schools. Massachusetts formed a notable exception in this regard. The support for the schools had to come practically and almost entirely from increased local taxation, and this made the effort to establish and maintain high schools in any State for a long period of time, a series of local struggles.

Years of propaganda and patient effort were required to begin a school, and after the establishment of a high school in a community, constant watchfulness was necessary to prevent its abandonment.

In many states, legislation providing for the establishment of high schools was attacked in the courts. One of the clearest cases of this occurred in Michigan, in a test appealed from the city of Kalamazoo, and which is commonly known as the "Kalamazoo Case." The opinion of the supreme court of the State was so favorable and so positive that this decision deeply influenced development in almost all of the upper Mississippi Valley states.

The struggle to establish and maintain high schools in Massachusetts and New York preceeded the development in other States, for these two states had been areas in which the common school had been established earlier. The struggle to extend and complete the public school system had been experienced earlier in Massachusetts and New York. The development was, likewise, more peaceful there, and came about more rapidly. In Massachusetts, this development was, in a large measure, the result of the educational awakening started by James G. Carter and Horace Mann. In New York, it was due to the early support of Governor DeWitt Clinton, and the later encouragement

and state-aid which came from the regents of the University of the State of New York. Maine, Vermont, and New Hampshire, like Massachusetts in spirit, followed closely its example. In Rhode Island and New Jersey, due to old conditions, and in Connecticut, due to the great line in education there after 1800, the high school developed much more slowly, and it was not until after 1865, that any marked development took place in those States. The democratic West soon adopted the idea, and established high schools as soon as cities developed and the needs of the population warranted. In the South, the main high school development dates from relatively recent times.

Gradually, the high school has been accepted as a part of the State common-school system by all the American States, and the funds and taxation originally provided for the common schools have been extended to cover the high school as well. The new States of the West based their legislation largely on the issues that Eastern and Central States had fought through, earlier. Although any discussion of the high school or the secondary school seems out of proportion at this point, it becomes important; for one needs recognize that the Latin-Grammar school laid a foundation out of which our present educational framework has emerged. The older framework embracing aims, methods, and curriculum lends the newer trends impact and impetus as well.

Preview of the Latin-Grammar Schools. - Before going into the aims, methods, and curriculum of the Latin-Grammar schools, the writer feels that a brief preview relating to this division of the school is practicable.

The origin of the American secondary school is usually traced to an humble event in the year of 1635, when the town-fathers of Boston

engaged a teacher, Philemon Pormort, who taught the village children at his home.

There were earlier schools attempted in several places, and in other communities and colonies as well, but so far as evidence is available, this was the oldest school of continued existence in the English colonies.[1]

Aims of the Latin-Grammar Schools. - It is not easy to checkupon the complete origin of all of the items reported concerning this school, but it seems that it was supported and controlled by the town, and its aim was to prepare boys for college. As was pointed out earlier in this paper, it appears that the aim of religious training was accomplished indirectly through the study of Latin and Greek. For this reason, the writer feels that the Grammar school had grown up within some dominant religious area which had the view that religious emphasis in the schools would remain everlasting.

Methods of the Latin-Grammar Schools. - The methods employed in the Latin-Grammar Schools were the traditional ones of Latin study. These methods were concerned with recitation in a different sense from the present meaning of the term, class recitation. The method of loud study was also used, in which each pupil studying at his desk vied with his neighbor in shouting words of his lesson; so instruction was chiefly a method of having the pupils repeat the lesson learned. Therefore, memorizing played a great part in the learning process of the pupils.[2]

The Curriculum of the Latin-Grammar Schools. - The curriculum of the Latin-Grammar Schools was humanistic, or centered upon human in-

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[1]Paul Monroe, Founding of American Public School System, p. 147.

[2]Ellwood P. Cubberley, History of Education, p. 472.

interest, or ideals of the students. The classical courses remained in style with the people until the first quarter of the nineteenth century, at which time certain aspects of English and History were introduced. Also, other grammar schools which had remained in existence after the middle of the seventeenth century had modified the humanistic nature of their curricula to some extent.

According to Monroe, "When any scholar was able to understand Jully, or such like classical authors' extempore; and make and speak true Latin in verse and prose, and decline perfectly the parodigoues of nouns and verbs in the Greek tongue; let him then, and not before, be capable of admission into the college."[1]

The standards were not greatly modified during the colonial period. Common arithmetic was added by Yale in 1745, and by Princeton in 1760. Greek was not always specified; two years' study of that language were required at William and Mary in 1721.

In general, the work of the grammar school was directed to a mastery of Latin, so the ability to read Cicero and Virgil had great bearing on the students' ability to make and speak true Latin in verse and prose.

As the American people advanced into the frontiers, there developed a scattered population, which not only had less respect for grammar schools, but also was less able to support them. Through all of this struggle, the tradition of higher education was kept alive, and learning was not buried in the graves of those persons who fought so hard to see the establishment of institutions dedicated to education.

Preview of the Academy. - During the eighteenth century, the

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[1] Ibid., p. 32.

Latin-Grammar School declined, partly because Latin was ceasing to be of value except for the ministers. Other factors causing this change were the need in a new country for men trained in subjects such as surveying, navigation, bookeeping, all of which demanded mathematics. Therefore, a new society with its new needs and ideals developed new leaders. Now, we can see lawyers sharing with ministers their primacy in society. Their training demanded a knowledge of history, geography, and government. The new thought of the eighteenth century was largely expressed in the French language, consequently, all the leaders of thought needed this rather than Latin.

Beginning in the third decade of the century, a mighty religious movement termed the Great Awakening, swept over the Colonies. The great interest in evangelical religion continued until after the Revolutionary War; it was this interest that fixed the dominant religious attitude during the nineteenth century as well. It is said that this interpretation of religion emphasized the emotional origin of religion, and laid stress on the intellectual formulation of creeds, and more on worship and on conduct. Thus, it is believed that the newer religious influences favored the building up of the secondary school designated at the time as the academy.

Here one comes to the conclusion that the Latin-Grammar Schools were the most common among the colonies. Every colony had such type schools. Where the population was scattered, no cities existed, and where the University was supplied from England by the established church, there Latin schools did not flourish. When the population belonged to a variety of religious sects, as in all the middle colonies, such schools were left to the various religious denominations.

Here, for the most part, they were tardily developed when they took the new form of the academy. New York made repeated efforts to maintain such a school, but did not succeed until the college was founded near the time of the Revolutionary period. Each of the New England colonies, except Rhode Island, developed a great number of schools of this nature, and at first, there was required one school for each town of one hundred families. Even here, the demand did not prevent the declining of these schools during the latter eighteenth century, as they failed to meet the new needs of an independent and growing society. Hence, they disappeared before the approach of the academy, which was more democratic in its organization, and ideals, more practical in its curriculum and method, and more efficient in its effort to contribute to the social welfare. In general, however, there was no plan of the Universal scheme of education of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in which all colonists more nearly reached agreement than that of the Latin-Grammar school.

One factor of great importance in building up these institutions was the influx of Scots, or since many of these came from Ireland, the Scotch-Irish. These were mostly Presbyterian; they opposed and strongly voiced their sentiment against an established church - whether Episcopal or Calvinist - and because of previous harsh experiences, were antagonistic to the English government, even as exercised throughout the Colonies. They sought the interior and the highland regions of the Middle and Southern states. They were a particularly hardy, independent, fearless, pioneer class; yet, their ministry was probably better educated than that of any Colonial church. Hence, they

were not only peculiarly inclined but also peculiarly equipped to build up these schools. Since the academies were especially the secondary schools of the early national period, their origin lies in this period. In Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Virginia, and the Carolinas, numerous centers of learning of this type grew up. Few of them attained sufficient size to demand legal organization. Most of them avoided it. Some few asked and received Colonial charters new the Revolutionary period. Some never received the name, "academy", but flourished nameless, to develop later into permanent institutions.

Of all the Colonial academies, the most important and charitable school was located in the Province of Pennsylvania, founded through the efforts of Benjamin Franklin who had proposed this school in the year, 1743. As to the studies, "it would be well if they were taught everything that was useful and everything ornamental. But art was long and time short. It was, therefore, proposed that they (the pupils), learn those things that were likely to be most useful and most ornamental."

The Aim of the Academy. - It seems that the aim of the academy was to prepare the students for college as well as to get them ready for the business of living. So one may see that the range of the curricula offerings was increased beyond that of the grammar school.

The Methods of the Academy. - Although it was said that the Latin-Grammar School could not be solely used, it was to a degree, continued. However, the academy proposed that since science was largely a book-subject, there were introduced demonstrations by men who used available apparatus to convey the meaning of science. Mathematics required much practice in the working of sums and the doing

of exercises. The English involved composition, writing and rhetoric. A number of the earlier academies also experimented with the monitorial system.[1] This monitorial method involved a great gain over the previous individualistic scheme in that all of the studying as well as the reciting was done under the monitor, so that practically the entire school was in operation all the time. The attention of each child was held whether in study or in recitation, both being carried on by group effort. In place of the former schoolroom of fifty to one hundred pupils, of whom a dozen or so at most were receiving attention while the rest were allowed a great variety of occupations determined by individual choice or were not occupied at all, here was a schoolroom of several hundred children, all of them actively engaged.

As evident from old woodcuts, the method of the recitation was very distinctive. Lessons were printed on large battledoves or charts, or written on movable blackboards. These were suspended from hooks on the wall, and before each, a group gathered under its monitor's supervision.

The popularity of the monitorial system as well as its general influence on method and its significance as a step in the development of the free public school is indicated by its very general adoption. Every region of the country was affected by it though New England was the least responsive. If interpretations of the literature are accurate, it seems that New England attempted to furnish free educationto the great mass of children in the cities and towns

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[1] American Journal of Education, pp. 206-210.

where the opportunities offered by the church schools did not suffice. Virginia and the Carolinas established numerous organizations to support such schools. The schools of Cincinnati and other towns of the Middle West were thus begun, as well as those of the cities in New York, Pennsylvania and the Central States in general. It was in the secondary schools or private academies, however, that the Lancasterian method was most generally adopted in the South and Middle West was not due to chance. Here, the private schools which were built up by co-operative efforts to supplement the devidiencies of the public school system were very generally designed on the Lancasterian Plan. During the twenties, Governor De Witt Clinton strongly advocated the establishment of a monitorial high school in each county of New York. While this failed, yet the method was used freely by the academies subsidized by this and other states. One of the best known and most striking statements of the importance of the monitorial plan was made by Governon Clinton in a public address:

> When I perceive that many boys in our school have taught to read and write in two months, who did not before know the alphabet, and that even one has accomplished it in three weeks, when I view all the hearings and tendencies of this system, when I contemplate the habits of order which it produces, the purity of morals which it inculcates, when I behold the extraordinary union of clerity instruction and economy of expense, when I perceive one great assembly of a thousand children, under the eye of a single teacher, marching with unexampled rapidity and with perfect discipline to the goal of knowledge, I confess that I recognize in Lancaster the benefactor of the human race. I consider his system as creating a new era in education, as a blessing sent down from heaven to redeem the poor and distressed of this world from the power and dominion of ignorance.

The Curriculum of the Academy. - The curriculum of the academy was designed to give a practical education rather than to prepare edu-

cated boys for college admission, only. The curriculum developed with the entire independence of the requirements of higher institutions.

It has been asserted that none of the academies achieved the idea set forth by Franklin; all of them liberalized the old secondary school offering. For example, in the English Department of Phillips Exeter Academy, the curriculum in 1799, was as follows:

For the First Year - English Grammar, including exercises in reading, in parsing, and analysing in the correction of bad English; punctuation and prosody; arithmetic; geography and algebra through simple equations.

For the Second Year - English grammar continued; geometry; plane trigonometry and its application of heights of distance; elements of Ancient History; logic; rhetoric; English composition; declamation and exercises of the forensic kind.

For the Third Year - Surveying; navigation; Elements of Chemistry and National Philosophy with experiments; Experiments of Moderne History, particularly of the United States; Moral and Political Philosophy with English Composition.[1]

Monroe lists as some of the subjects that were reported to the Regents in 1837: Arithmetic, Algebra, Architectural Drawing, English Grammar, Astronomy, Chemistry, Composition, Constitution of New York, Elements of Criticism, Declamation, Plane Geometry, General History, History of the United States, History of New York, Hebrew, Italian, Latin, Law, Spanish, Topography, Penmanship, Statistics and Technology Principles of Teaching.[2] Cubberly states that out of one hundred and

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[1]Alexander Inglis, Principles of Secondary Education, p. 179.

[2]Paul Monroe, Principles of Secondary Education, p. 58.

forty-nine new subjects for study appearing in the academies of New York, between 1787 and 1870, twenty-three appeared before 1826; one hundred between 1826 and 1840; and twenty-six after 1840. Between 1825 and 1828, one-hald of the new subjects appeared.[1]

Thus it was that the older conceptions of education as reflected in the Massachusetts Laws of 1642-1647, gave way to a new methodology reflected in the academy of the early and middle nineteenth century. Franklin's Proposals. - According to Adams[2], the intellectual life of New England gradually "came to be pedantic and narrow rather than humane and broad, with both conscience and thrift operating against much that is valuable in social life and the arts." The decade of about 1700, marked the lowest period of English culture reached in America before or since. Here we find in this atmosphere that the Latin-Grammar schools gradually declined; but it was long before the people felt a sufficient need to invent a better plan. In 1749, Benjamin Franklin published a proposal relating to the education of the youth in Pennsylvania. He felt that some gentlemen of leisure and public spirit should set up an academy to promote the welfare of its students when they went forth to the duties of active life. It was further stated that the academy should have a building with a garden, orchard, meadow, and a field, in which the study of husbandry and science could be had for the boys to exercise in running, leaping, and swimming and slowly was the institution to be equipped with a library, maps of all countries, globes, some mathematical instruments and apparatus for experimenting in natural sciences.

Franklin's idea for a curriculum, to the writer's belief, was

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[1] Cubberley, Op. Cit., p. 178.

[2] James T. Adams, The Epic of America, pp. 43-60.

revolutionary. He wanted everything to be taught that was useful as well as decorative; which leads one to believe that art was long and the boys' time was short. Therefore, he wanted them to learn those things that were likely to be useful to them and most ornamental as well.

Since great emphasis was laid on English in its several branches: grammar, composition, oral reading and literature, especially that which was recent, the pupils had to make declamations, repeat speeches, and deliver orations of their own, and seek to cultivate their style and form of communication by writing letters to each other. It was important for them to have some principles of penmanship; so all were taught drawing. Franklin spoke of a course in general history, including geography, chronology, and ancient custom, which was to be followed by the best modern histories particularly that of our mother country, and of those colonies which should be acquainted with observations on their use to Great Britain. Again, Franklin wanted to exclude all of the foreign languages, although he was willing to abide the wishes of another status group - those whose wealth and influences were needed.

The First Academies. - According to Woody, citizens pledged eight hundred pounds annually for five years and the city of Philadelphis voted two hundred pounds in addition to an extra hundred pounds, annually for the academies within the province. In the petition for city aid, it was stated that the proposed academy would educate youth at home rather than abroad so that they might have parental oversight; and that it would give the preparation which was needed. It was further stated that the academy would train a number of poor teachers

of elementary schools; and that it would draw from other places, students who would spend their money in Philadelphia.[1] It was pointed out that the Philadelphia Academy opened its doors in 1751, organized into three schools, one of Latin, English and a Mathematical unit, each with its own master; to these a little later was added a philosophical school.

In 1778 and 1781, Massachusetts and New Hampshire received academies established by the Phillip's family. The aim stated in the constitution for the one at Andover, to instruct youth not only in English, and latin grammar, writing, arithmetic, and those sciences which were commonly taught, but to instruct them to learn the "Great End" and "Real Business" of living. It was further stated that the first and principal object of that institution was the promotion of true recerance for God; the second, instruction in the English, Latin, and Greek language together with writing, arithmetic, music and the art of speaking; the third, spoke of practical geometry, logic, arts and geography; and fourth, such other liberal arts and sciences as were deemed necessary. Inglis[2] stated that in 1800, seventeen academies had been incorporated in the state of Massachusetts. The period of most rapid development, occurred between 1826 and 1835, during which sixty academies were incorporated within ten years, as compared with forty in the preceeding forty-five years and sixty-nine in the succeeding years.

The Phillips Academies, 1778-1781. - Samuel Phillip of Massachusetts, became the chief patron of an academy in Andover, Massa-

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[1]Thomas Woody, Educational Views of Benjamin Franklin, pp. 192-228. [2]Inglis, Op. Cit., p. 173.

chusetts, which opened in 1778, and another in Exeter, New Hampshire, in 1781. It was said that Phillips' relatives supported the schools. It seems worth while to give to the reader the aims, objectives, curriculum, methods, the nature of the decline, and the contributions made by these academies.

The Aim. - The academies stressed a "great end and the real business of living." The object of these academies was to promote true piety and virtue.

The Methods of Phillips Academies. - There were some student activities in the academies which enriched the curriculum to some extent. Literary societies, debates and maps were stressed, and in order to encourage support, the public was often presented lectures, school exhibits, literary programs, and plays. In those academies operated by churches, religious societies were quite common and all students received instruction from the Bible.

The Curriculum. - The curriculum was broader than college entrance requirements, although it served that function. These schools represented the first real beginning of the academy movement.

From their beginning, the academies were established for girls who had no place in the Latin-Grammar School. Before this time, they attended writing school two days a week, and those who received a secondary education had a private tutor or went abroad. Girls were not admitted to the Universities.

According to Monroe,[1] there were about seventy-five subjects taught in the academies of the State of New York in 1837, including various branches of Mathematics, Sciences, English, Social Studies,

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[1] Monroe, Op. Cit., p. 58.

Surveying, Law, Philosophy, Ancient and Modern Language, Theology, Business, Navigation, Painting, and Principles of Teaching.

In contrast to the Latin-Grammar school whose curriculum paralleled that of the elementary school, the academy built upon the curriculum of the elementary school. It received pupils from the elementary school and gave them secondary education which fitted them for the participation in the affiars of daily life or for entrance into college.

Decline. - As time went on, the academy revolutionized education to the extent that it declined in power. In the viewpoint of the writer, it is hard to invent means of carrying out approved theory. Therefore, the many teachers that were demanded for the increasing number of schools must have had little ability or time to carry on textbook instruction of a conventional kind or according to the usual way dictated by custom.

For three quarters of a century, the academy was a dominant secondary school. By the end of that time it had become reorganized and tended more and more to a curriculum preparatory for college. For a third of a century after the establishment of free public high schools it increased in numbers, and then for a generation it hindered the oncoming flood of high school. But its day of supremacy was over by the year, 1890.

Remnants of the academy remain now only in secondary schools maintained by religious sects or in those supported by endowments, which give the students preparation for college.

Contributions. - It was pointed out that by comparing secondary education at the close of the academy period with that inherited from England, the writer believes that it was possible to realize that advancement was made. In the first place, though the academy was, in

its beginning, somewhat privately supported and controlled as an institution, civic authorities through various kinds of aid had continued and increased the early colonial sentiment of public support. Kandel pointed out that although the academy flourished in New England during the first decades of the nineteenth century, its existence ran counter to their traditions, which favored the public supply and control of education. Second, domination by church and sectarian influence, as compared with that of Europe, had largely given away. Third, the writer feels that the academy attracted and admitted not only boys who were older than formerly, but from social classes not of the top social and economic rank, but girls also. Fourth, it built on the improved elementary school and so was no longer a private, parallel and aristocratic institution. Fifth, there were continued the tuition charges, which prevented the democratization which was later to come. While they originated in response to a democratic movement, they became schools for the rich. In fact, the poor youth of great talent had little encouragement through the remission of fees, but it was said that the opportunities for working one's way increased. Sixth, it really did revolutionize the curriculum, retaining the best of the old, but added new subjects that were both more advanced and practical. However, Kandel further noted that a philosophy does not appear and, as contrasted with the rooted convictions on the purposes of a secondary education, could not be found in Europe at that time, the development of the curriculum seems to the writer to have been haphazard. But that the curriculum - haphazard as it was - had great influence on the colleges, enabling and in some instances forcing them to increase their standards and to

and to improve their offerings cannot be overlooked. Seventh, in its getting started, and in that period which one might consider "its beginning", the secondary school had a limited objective; however, it developed to the point where it was no longer merely a preparation of a preparatory step for college, but attempted to give the kinds of education that the students needed for life success.

Preview of the High School. - During the early decades of the nineteenth century, there had been a very marked movement toward public control of higher education. In the second quarter of the century, this change in public opinion began to affect the institutions of secondary education. This movement revealed itself in two ways: first, in the formation of the so-called "free academies"; second, in the establishment of high schools.[1]

The founding of the high school began in Massachusetts. The "free-step" academy was a step beyond the ordinary academy in the democratization of secondary schools; the new institution was to be called the high school which reflects a much more pronounced step. In 1821, the Boston town-meeting voted to establish an English classical school parallel to the Latin-Grammar School of ancient origin. The name indicated that the school was to be distinguished on the one hand from the English grammar school, as that term was coming into use for the stage of common education generally known as grammar grades, and on the other hand from the Latin school of ancient standing. The new English classical school was to be parallel to the Latin classical school, but the curriculum was to consist of the entire range of modern subjects, substituting English Literature, Mathematics,

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[1] Ibid., p. 32.

the Sciences, and History for the Latin and Greek of the old school. It is said that three years later the term, Latin High School, was employed in the official vote and designated this school as being universal in the United States.

According to Clement, the high school movement was due to a number of factors in addition to the general demand that the new social needs and conditions be met. One of these was the Lancaster and Bell Movement in England and in America, to reduce the cost or expense of private education. Another factor was found in the semi-public support of the academy, resulting in the origin of a number of free academies. A third factor was the growing tendency to increase the size of the smaller school districts into larger units, especially in the instance of cities.[1]

It is believed that the first high school is not being regarded as the model of later high schools organized, although it did contribute to the later high schools to a relatively large degree by trying out the enlarged purposes and expanding courses of study. A law pertaining to the establishment of high schools in Massachusetts, comparable in some respects to the Law of 1647, pertaining to grammar schools, was passed in 1827. This law made provision for the teaching of certain high school subjects such as: history, bookkeeping, algebra, geometry, and surveying in communities having as many as five hundred families. Subjects such as Latin, Greek, advanced history, rhetoric and logic were offered to communities of four thousand inhabitants. For several decades following the enactment of the Law of 1827, towns

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[1]John A. Clement, Principles and Practices of Secondary Education, p. 198.

of Massachusetts and other states were allowed much freedom to organize schools to their liking in their respective communities. Clement states that some of the factors affecting the growth of high schools during these few decades were: increased population of towns, reorganization of the size of districts, and changed economic and industrial conditions.[1]

Aim of the High school - The aim of the hgih school was to provide for both the academy and other groups - such as vocational groups of pupils - and the non-academy, while the primary emphasis of the English school was preparation for practical life activities. The aim of the curriculum had been foreshadowed by the academy movement. Public support and control had been suggested by both the Latin-Grammar School and the free academies. The Law of 1827, included the chief element of the standardized high school which followed the Massachusetts model. It is further believed that while the influence of European schools was strong upon the grammar schoolsof the colonial period, there was little evidence of foreign influence upon secondary education in the high schools of New England; therefore, the democratic high school is almost wholly an American institution.

Methods of the High School. - The early high schools showed no significant development beyond the academies. Increased numbers, larger class groups, and a systematized course of study produced a greater formalism in method through the development in class instruction, which was quite in accord with the tendencies revealing themselves in other phases of education. The high school represented democracy above all in support by taxation and in control by publicly elected officials.

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[1] Ibid., p. 57.

It had become a component part of the public school system though it still markedly remained low in its class when ranked with the academy.

The High School Curriculum. - As to curricula, the high school offered a more restricted course of study, as this was now brought under public control and made responsive to public needs rather than individual preference. The process of democratization was shown in both institutions in the admission of girls.

Realizing the fact that the early curriculum was subject to public control and that the curriculum was set up to meet the needs of individuals of that day, it is very much in order to report on the present day trends by showing the difference in curriculum of modern times as contrasted with the older curriculum. Gwynn reports on the American Youth Commission of The American Council On Education, 1935-1943, (when the American Council Commission was established in 1935), a full investigation of the problems facing youth in this country was conducted. The work was finished in 1943. Its investigation has been of value to the high school teacher in the following ways: they provided well-shaped, accurate studies for young people, their work, their problems, and their life; and in the light of the studies, further suggestions were made as to how the school thought its curriculum could adopt its program to meet the needs and problems of today's youth. Our present civilization is characterized by the age of machinery. Manpower has been reduced to a minimum and machine labor has increased to the maximum; hence , in order to meed the requirement of this industrial change, civilization is demanding that our school set up curriculums to send trained students to fit into specific activities

of life.[1]

Gwynn further reports from the Eight Year Experimental Study of Secondary Schools, 1939, 1941, and The Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association in 1930. After careful planning and study, this Commission submitted to certain representative colleges in 1932, a proposal for an experimental study to be carried on over a period of eight years. This plan provided that a small group of secondary schools througbout the country should be permitted by these colleges to engage in experimental work; the graduates of these schools would be accepted by the colleges for a period of five years, beginning in 1936, without regard to the traditional course and unit requirements on entrance examinations generally required for all students. Almost all of the colleges agreed to admit candidates from these experimental schools on the bases of the statement of the principal of the school. A careful history of the students' school activities, life and interests, and the results of various types of examinations and scores on scholastic, aptitude, and other diagnostic tests given to him throughout his course in secondary school, was made. More than two hundred and fifty American colleges and Universities approved the plan and gave the official cooperation to the school engaging in the study.[2]

By 1941, approximately ten thousand graduates from the thirty schools had been admitted to these two hundred and fifty colleges. About one thousand five hundred of these graduates from the experimen-

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[1] J. Minor Gwynn, Curriculum Principles and Social Trends, pp. 374-375.

[2] Ibid., p. 61

tal schools had been studied carefully over a period of five years by a competent staff of four men chosen from college faculties. The first class in the Eight Year Study entered college in September, 1936, and graduated in June, 1940. The fifth class began their college careers in September, 1940. Various types of higher institutions were represented in the study, men's colleges, women's colleges, private institutions, state universities, and co-educational institutions.

The study invelved a comparison of the one thousand five hundred graduates of experimental schools which prescribed a definite number of units of credit in specified courses for entrance to college. In order to make a valid comparison, each experimental-school graduate of the study was matched with another graduate from the traditional secondary school who was of the same sex, age, home and community background, scholastic aptitude, and vocational preference insofaras possible. The graduates of the traditional school had followed the general pattern of subjects usually prescribed for admission to the different colleges. The following results of the study were reported by the chairman:

1. On the basis of grades, students from the thirty schools did fully as well as those with whom they were compared except in foreign languages. Whatever difference there is in grades was in favor of the students in the study, but the difference may not be statistically significant.
2. The students from the six schools which departed most markedly from the conventional curriculum made decidely better grades than their matches.
3. Forty-six students who had no mathematics in the secondary school beyond the ninth grade did better than their matches in all subjects, including mathematics.

4. There was no discoverable relationship between the pattern of subjects taken in school and student success in college.
5. Without competence in the use of the English language in reading, speaking, and writing, the student cannot do college work satisfactorily. This is the one ability clearly essential, but conventional secondary-school English courses seldom develop that ability.[3]

The achievement of these graduates from the experimental schools in terms of other than scholastic records were also reported upon by the special college staff. Here the results of this controlled experiment indicated that: (1) the graduate from the thirty experimental schools liked and participated more freely in a wider range of organized campus activities than graduates from the older secondary schools; (2) they were more active in intellectual hobbies, creative and appreciative experiences, and strictly social pastimes; (3) they were able to organize their time better; (4) they listened to more worthwhile radio programs; (5) they read more widely; (6) they felt more frequently a lack of preparation in English composition; and (7) in general, they have shown themselves well prepared for success in their college pursuits.

There has been remarkably little criticism of the study when one considers its magnitude and the significance of its implications. Thirty schools were given a free rein to modify the types of curricula to which they should expose their students, and at least six of these changed their curricula so radically that in many respects the matter studied departed broadly from the traditional pattern of subject-matter areas and courses for college entrance. Yet, the graduates of these six schools seem tohave done just as well scholastically in

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[1] E. R. Smith, Appraising and Recording Student Progress, Vol. 4, 1942.

college as the graduates of those schools where the traditional curriculum still held sway, and where the students took the regular college preparatory courees in number of units and amount of work. One significant fact established as a result of the Eight Year Study is that radical changes in the curriculum of the secondary school do not hinder the success of its graduates in the college work. The secondary school can be trusted to formulate new curricula satisfactorily for college preparatory students, whether they know what constitutes student success in college or not.[1]

The Eight Year Study has also had a tremendous influence on the secondary school curriculum in another direction. From it, an improved program developed for the inservice training of the teachers, to prepare them to experiment successfully with the curricula in these thirty schools without harm to the students under their charge. Soon after the Commission of the Progressive Education Association received the approval of the college and the secondary schools concerned, and the program was put into effect, serious limitations to the study arose because of the lack of training among teachers for the experimental work. Faced with this situation, the Commission used some of the funds granted to it for the study in the establishment of summer work-shops. These work shops were of six or more weeks in lenght, and they were engaged in the Eight Year Study. Groups of teachers from the various schools would come to the workshops with the problems upon which they wanted to work, during the summer, in order that they might successfully introduce new proce-

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[1] W. H. Lancelot, A Close Up of the Eight Year Study For December, 1943, pp. 449-451

dures to their pupils during the regular term. The implications of this workshop procedure for the better training of teachers in service were great. The essential characteristics of the workshop program offered the following: (1) Teachers outlined specific problems upon which they wanted to work during the period, and in the sharing and planning of group activities in order to meet their needs; (2) the provision was made for the service of staff members who were specially trained to give all kinds of assistance; (3) the association of the participant in formal and informal situations with other students of all kinds of backgrounds to broaden them professionally, and to give them experience in cooperative activities; (4) provisions to stimulate these participants toconsider the growth and development of the whole child, the whole community, and the whole school; and (5) provision for balanced living for the participant in the group and individually during the period of the workshop.[1]

[1] K. L. Heaton, The Program of Summer Workshop, pp. 21-43.

III

THE SOCIOLOGICAL AND ECONOMIC TRENDS IN CURRICULUM WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOL, TODAY

Education is much more inclusive than the skills, attitudes, and knowledges which are attained in the school. In the educative process, six agencies make major contributions to the growth and development of the school child. Influence is brought to bear in different ways and with great force by (1) the family; (2) the church; (3) the community; (4) the play group; (5) economic agencies; and (6) the school. The cumulative impacts upon the child of these areas of social, economic and religious life leave imprints which must be carefully considered in the formation of the curriculum. In addition to these six major agencies, there are other agencies of a private nature, such as service clubs, private groups, juvenile and social welfare agencies, and institutions of a protective and correctional nature.

The Family. - The home is still the main institution affecting the life and growth of the child. In 1600, in the state of Maryland, a study was made of one-third of the youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four in which it was found that those who could be considered as juvenile delinquents came from broken homes.[1]

A North Carolina suty of 45,000 children from the ages of six to twenty-four showed that one-fourth of the white youth and slightly less than one-half of the Negro youth came from homes broken by divorce, separation, or death.[2]

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[1]H. M. Bell, Youth Tell Story: A Study of the Conditions and Attitudes of Young People in Maryland, pp. 19-20.

[2]Gordon W. Lovejoy, Findings of North Carolina Youth Survey, p. 25.

This disruption of normal family life could account for a large part of the maladjustment among children of all ages.

A study of the family at close range reveals much information for a more complex and sympathetic understanding of children. From the child's earliest age, a feeling of "oneness" of identification with the family group is naturally instilled; even before he begins the first grade of school, many of his patterns of living, of conduct, of emotions and attitudes, and of ideas are already set.[1]

In one family, swift and sure obedience is absolutely required; in another home it is understood by the parents; in still another family, the child is taught to be seen and not heard. In this, we can see that the mores and attitudes which the child absorbs are more frequently and fundamentally found outside school walls than within them.

In 1640, Brown and Cook[2] showed clearly some of the types of home training which caused friction between parents and children. As boys and girls grow older, friction is likely to arise between parents and adolescents because the training which the adolescents have received in the family begins to clash with the customs of the community.

The American family is changing in its size, its stability, and its neighborhood culture. The school cannot take the place of the family and is not expected to do so; but how can the mores, the tradition, the training, and the ideas of the family be used effectively

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[1]Arnold Gesell, The First Five Years of Life, p. 87.

[2]F. J. Brown, Sociology of Childhood, pp. 107-152.

in the dealing with children and their problems?

The publication of two yearbooks by educational groups[1] pointed out a growing emphasis in the public schools upon the family and the child's relation to it. In this connection one is prone to wonder whether an individual's happiness in adult life is pre-conditioned to a great extent by a happy, homely, congenial understanding atmosphere in the family in which he was raised. Such factors as the type of punishment the child receives at home and the strength or weakness of the affection he has for his parents, may be the key to an understanding of the child's reaction toward his teachers in school. It should be understood that the school's curriculum can become effective only to the degree that it is felt and promoted by the teacher with the help of the family members and community resources.

The Church. - Two hundred and fifty denominations in the United States exert a strong influence upon the homes and the children in the homes of the nation. Each of twenty-four of these denominations has as many as two hundred thousand members or more. Most churches and/or denominations have subsidiary organizations for young people. In 1700, Hartshoene and May[2] carried out the most exhaustive research on how right conduct in use was correlated with religious ideas and attitudes. The indoctrination of children in religion does not necessarily result in a significant increase in their approved behavior. From an early age, most children come in contact with the social institution, the church, which tends to require group action-for its adherents-of a certain pattern in regard to personal attitudes, be-

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[1] "Family Living and Our School", 19th Yearbook, N. E. A., 1941.

[2] H. Hartshorne and M. A. May, Studies in the Organization of Character, p. 90.

liefs, wishes, and inspirations. Adolescents are especially troubled by problems of church authority, concepts of God, and ideas of Sabbath observance. If their parents are of different religious faiths, they are likely to be troubled over this difference. This conflict sometimes affects the child's participation in the curriculum of the school.

The Play Group. - During the adolescent period, the play group is more frequently termed the group of peers or the gang. Before reaching the age when pubertal changes begin to work within him, the child is as likely to be loyal to his family, or to his church, or to his school as to his gang.

On the other hand, the secondary school student is more apt to be loyal to his play group than to any other group. That group demands loyalty of him; it constitutes part of an unwritten code which is not violated with impunity. The gang of the adolescent has its own sense of unity, based on cooperative activity, through which the club or gang itself becomes the basis for the conduct of each member as well as the very motivation of the organization. Certain standards and activities for the adolescent are definitely fixed and rigidly required by his gang. Obedience to the gang-rules is of great importance, and punishment is swift for the offender.

Conflicts arise among adolescents in these groups or gangs. The following main types of conflicts emerge from time to time: (1) conflicts in the group itself; (2) conflicts between the group and other groups; (3) conflicts with organized agencies of authority such as: the home, the church, and the police.[1] Through these conflicts the

[1]Brown, op. cit., p. 169.

growing child seeks escape from restricted life, or the authority of agencies which he thinks are too cramping or dominant. Not only are the foregoing sociological factors involved, there are also economic factors to be considered.

There has been more than a half century[1] of strife over the movement to eliminate harmful child labor in industrial and economic life. The depression of the 1930's operated to give fresh impetus to several states in their efforts to prevent children from taking part in industry before a reasonable age is reached. As more and more state laws were enacted to prevent the child from beginning work before the ages of sixteen or eighteen, more and more were the schools and other agencies of society supposed to help care for these children until they reached legal age required for entering industry.

Labor unions are making an effort to raise the legal age at which youth can enter industry; however, some of the results of their proposed policy of compulsory legislation are alarming. While the unions have labored to protect the health and growth of youth and to make more jobs available for adults who really need work in order to support their families, two aspects of the complex problem have been almost entirely overlooked. In the first place, neither the schools, the homes, nor other community agencies are now in a position to continue to train youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty in profitable ways, if youth are not allowed by law to enter industry when they finish school. Few types of apprenticeship have been established which are acceptable both to labor and to industry, and which gradually induct youth into profitable employment after they have finished their school careers. At the present time, the main courses of this

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[1] Bulletin - Labor and Education From 1881-1938, pp. 169-221.

kind which the schools have developed have been "diversified occupations" and "distributive education."[1]

The second aspect of this complex problem of the legal age at which a youth can begin his life's work is involved with the question of whether a person who has done no work until he is eighteen years of age will ever do any work satisfactorily. From the age of five or six, every child has as one of his ambitions the earning of some money entirely his own. If this ambition is thwarted or opposed in the child, and no opportunity or training in economic independence is given to him, his energy and his ambitions are liable to be turned into other and much less desirable directions.

Child labor decreased sharply during the operation of the National Recovery Act, 1933-1935, while the employment of adults showed an upward trend during the same period. Today, the United States, through its Social Security Act, 1935, has the problem of unemployment insurance on both a national and state scale as a factor complicating the induction of youth into labor.

The Federal Fair Labor Standards Act, 1938, limited hours of labor and established minimum standards of pay for workers in various fields. If children between the ages of fifteen to eighteen are to be inducted gradually into a vocation, better arrangements will have to be made whereby their wages and hours will be agreeable both to labor and to industry. Unless community agencies and the schools work together on this vital question, youth behavior-problems will undoubtedly tend to increase because of conflicts with the law when

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[1] K. B. Hass, Distributive Education: Bulletin No. 211, 1940.

young people cannot make proper adjustment to their work environment and work world.

A number of community agencies operate to influence and condition the school child. In this connection there comes to mind first of all, the service clubs; Rotary, Kiwanis, and Lions; a second type of organization includes, the Junior Red Cross, and the Hi-Y Clubs; a third type comprises such groups as the American Legion, the community club, book clubs, and the Junior Chamber of Commerce. Some of the organizations are local, others national, in character. Among those of national prominence are Boy and Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls, 4-H Clubs, and the Red Cross. But all of these agencies contribute to and affect the lives of various children from the time they enter school until they finish. Proper connection must be made by the curriculum worker with the agencies as they are needed in his work.

The 1940 White House Conference On Children in a Democracy[1] considered play and the constructive use of leisure time of such educational importance that it gave substantial recognition to it in its recommendations. Among the suggestions made were the following: the placing upon the communities, the state, and the Federal government the responsibility for the provision of recreational facilities and services; the survey of local recreational facilities and the systematic planning of such; the provisions of adequate equipment, facilities and trained personnel; the collaboration of social organizations and entertainment industries in the provision of adequate programs for the sound development of children in out-of-school times; and the

[1]General Report of White House Conference On Children In A Democracy, January 19, 1940, pp. 37-41.

equalization of opportunities available for certain neglected groups of children.

Libraries and museums are other places where individuals can spend their leisure time without expense. The facilities, along with those furnished by dramatics and art groups, can give powerful stimulation to children in out-of-school as well as in-school hours.

Finally, organizations of social groups furnish another kind of informal education; examples of these are: card clubs, dancing clubs radio clubs, and the social parties of adolescent youth excluding those who visit night clubs. Community mores or behavior have changed so much in the last fifty years that dance and card clubs are generally as accepted today as camp meetings were accepted to previous generations. In spite of the fast-moving age of the automobile, it should be important to both the parents and the teacher for the child to hold his parties, his dances, and his social gatherings at home rather than in a night club.

The great problem which faces educational employees is how out-of-school organizations can be used to advantage by the school. Should the school, using its teachers as counselors, extend its program into the months of the summer vacation and provide some of the recreation for children at that time? Would this plan be practicable? Such a program would eliminate the idleness of school plants for two or three months each year - plants in which billions of dollars have been invested. The educational possibilities of the summer use of school plants and staff are limitless and have been scarcely scratched.

Any conclusion pertaining to the sociological and economic trends in the curriculum work of the high school would not be complete without

considering the opinions and attitudes of secondary-school pupils and the public in regard to education. A study by Harnley[1] reveals that ten percent of the high school seniors in Nebraska were sampled. Replies were received from 1,572 seniors in fifty-five schools. Harnley sent the same eighty statements to a select list of one hundred and sixty-eight members of the Society for Curriculum Study; of these, one hundred and thirty answered. The high school seniors were most conservative in the following practices and beliefs: that educational practices should change slowly; that school work should be fitted to the class average rather than to individual pupils; that disciplinary values are most important; that more attention is needed on formal drill; that the school should not educate for leisure; that learning how to compete successfully is more significant than learning how to live cooperatively; and that school buildings need not necessarily be beautiful in architecture. The same students were most liberal in the following practices and beliefs: that schools should teach controversial issues; that participation in community activities should be used in school activities in order to find out what the students can do best; that interest should be the dominating urge in learning; that not too much time is being spent on education; that education should change as civilization changes.

Therefore, the implications that exist for the teacher and the child's curriculum as related to the sociological and economic trends in our society may be summarized thus:

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[1] "Attitudes of High School Seniors Toward Education", The School Review, September, 1939, pp. 501-509.

(1). A good understanding of the various aspects of home and family life must be possessed by the teacher before he can assist his pupils to make satisfactory adjustments. If possible, it must be remembered that the school should supplement, not supplant, the training of the home.

(2). The teacher should have a wide knowledge of people's religious beliefs and mores, since the conduct and beliefs of children are strongly conditioned by those of the family and the church.

(3). The introduction of school courses or activities in "Family Living" and "Home Life" requires that the school know more than ever about the home. This movement has gained much mementum or popularity and shows evidence of continued expansion.

(4). The determination of additional activities and courses of study for those between sixteen and eighteen who are prohibited by law from going into life's work can be accomplished satisfactorily only when the school understands thoroughly the sociological and economic conditions which those pupils are facing and will face in the future.

(5) The school system and the school teacher which fail to employ the child's informal educational experiences and interests as points of departure or motivating forces in their curricular work are neglecting a natural approach to learning and life. A pupil's attitude toward an adult, a peer, a social or economic agency, or a leisure-time activity will be more truly represented by his unrestrained reaction in enjoying a movie, the radio, a magazine or book, or some other form of entertainment. His reaction to the same sort of person

or situation at school occurs in an artificial atmosphere, no matter how hard one attempts to make it life-like.

IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In compiling this thesis, the writer has attempted to trace the evolutionary process of our educational system as far back as the Latin-Grammar School. He has also attempted to set up the primary aims of education as are accepted by authorities, and from these aims - as a working basis - point out the defects in our past system and show that the evolution of society merely made the effects and the defects stand out. The writer's approach to the problem through the use of the historical method, has resulted in an analysis of curriculum changes covering a number of years.

This method of approach has pointed out that, historically, societal demands have usually preceeded the change from the old to the new type of curriculum in secondary schools. The change in aims, methods, and curriculum is in answer to the demands of our present civilization.

Since nothing is an ideal within itself, but each age brings us closer and closer to the approach of idealism, we may reasonably assume that in the future, concepts of aims, methods, and curricula must, like those of the past, be changed in order to meet the demands of that day, and that the efficiency of our future citizens will be based upon the type of methods used in the learning process.

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